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AUTHOR Reitan, Henry M., Ed.; Sadowski, Bernard S., Ed.
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ABSTRACT

The papers presented at three conferences dealing with nontraditional students at community colleges comprise this report. Papers included are: "Aging in America" by Francis Scott; "Aging in Oregon: A Look at Clackamas Community College" by Larry Forsythe; "Community Needs Assessment: Some Reflections" by Alice Kethley; "Education for Aging: A Community Experience" by Robert Sarvis; Bernard S. Sadowski on "Community Colleges and Senior Centers"; Ernest J. Kramer on "The Nontraditional Students"; Wray Whitesell on "Job Retraining"; Ann Oxrieder on "Nontraditional Careers for Women"; "Nontraditional Occupations" by William J. Schill; and "Cultural Differences: Implications for Learning, Teaching, and Testing" by James Vasquez. All papers deal with problems specific to nontraditional, adult students in a community college setting and the implications for college administrators, faculties, and instructional programs. Program planning and implementation by community educators to meet nontraditional student needs are emphasized, and problems specific to women, minority students, and senior citizens are discussed. Lists of conference participants are included. (TR)

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PROCEEDINGS: SPRING CONFERENCES 1977

Current Issues in Bi-Lingual, Compensatory, Remedial Education
February 7–8

Nontraditional Students in Nontraditional Occupations
March 7–8

Aging in America
April 11–12

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Henry M. Reitan
Bernard S. Sadowski
Editors

Center for Development of Community
College Education

University of Washington

Frederic T. Giles
Director

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PREFACE

The following papers were presented during the 1976-77 Academic Year in three conferences, Current Issues in Bi-Lingual, Compensatory, Remedial Education on February 7-8, Nontraditional Students in Non-traditional Occupations on March 7-8 and Aging in America on April 11-12, by the Center for Community College Development. All three conferences dealt with the non-traditional student in community college education. In our opinion, the papers presented herein have import for community educators who are presently planning and/or implementing programs which will meet the needs of these "newer" students.

A special note of thanks is extended to Dr. William J. Schill, Associate Professor of Higher Education, University of Washington, for his coordination and organization of the March Conference. The editors of these Proceedings are truly greatful and appreciative of Dr. Schill's assistance.

Henry M. Reitan
Bernard S. Sadowski

AGING IN AMERICA

Keynote Address

Frances Scott*

I would like to consider with you a few ideas that are currently on the top of my mind. The first concerns the future of gerontology in general. Then I want to discuss gerontology in post-secondary education, and use some examples from my own university. Some of this may be relevant to community colleges, especially for the administrators present. Third, we will discuss how university gerontology centers can assist community colleges to get started in gerontological education, and finally we will consider how community colleges and universities can best cooperate to integrate and advance the field of gerontology.

When we think about the future, we're really thinking about planning and programming. When it comes to gerontology, the handwriting is already on the wall, or, if you want to put it another way, the demography is going to determine the future. You only need to look at the demography to realize that we currently are near "zero population growth" in respect to our birthrate in this country. The children who were born during the baby boom of the 1950's and 1960's are now young adults and a very sizeable proportion of the population of the U.S. As these people move into old age, given zero population growth for the next few years, we are going to have a population "rectangle," instead of the traditional population pyramid. That has never happened in world populations before. We are likely to have about the same number of people being born and dying each year--that's what "zero population growth" ultimately means.

*Director Gerontology Center, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon

Depending on where you're coming from and the orientation and expertise of your college, you may tend to think of the gerontological problem as one of health care delivery. Or you may think of it as social services. It is all of these, and more.

We have a situation in which we can foresee for American society an increase in the number of older persons, deriving from a lowered and stabilized birth rate. We may have a leveling out of the economy at the same time. We are already aware that there is more emphasis on planning social programs than we have ever had in the past--more emphasis upon accountability for the federal and state dollar. All of these things work together to make professionals in gerontology very certain that gerontology is a field that will develop and grow. On the other hand, we are concerned about the shape this advancement will take in post-secondary education.

I would like to talk about gerontology and post-secondary education, using my own university as an example of a mature gerontology program. Next fall will be the tenth anniversary of our instructional program. We are now getting ready at the University of Oregon to offer a degree in gerontology.

In gerontology, we are confronted with what is an unusual situation in most of higher education today. We are still operating with a "student-driven model" in gerontology; we have increasing enrollment in our gerontology classes; we have students knocking at our doors trying to get into gerontology programs. At least we do at our university, and I think this is true at most of the others. But the universities in general have entered a "steady state," or even a "declining state" in terms of

available dollars, the feasibility of new programs, the number of student enrollments, and so on. Gerontology programs are likely to be "growth" pockets in a climate of steady state or declinging educational effort. This makes the problems of the gerontological educator much different in nature than those we confronted ten or twelve years ago. I think administrators particularly will appreciate this point.

In our university, gerontology is a supporting area, and it can be used as a minor or a supporting area for students majoring in almost any academic discipline or professional field, even law. Not all departments at the graduate level require a supporting area; some require it, others do not. Gerontology meets requirements in departments which require them, and most departments allow students to have a supporting area, although it is not required. So there are more and more students using gerontology" to show on their degree or on their diploma, so that they can say to an employer, "See, I am a trained gerontologist." Student demand is an important reason the University of Oregon is planning a degree-granting department of gerontology.

Now, let's turn to community colleges. I'm not sure that any university can help you very much to establish a gerontology program in your community college. The reason I say this is that what you need in order to start a gerontology program is first of all a commitment from someone high enough in your administrative structure to give you at least a fighting chance to have the new program around long enough to become stabilized in its funding. This means a "hard money" commitment. Federal grants alone are not enough. This also means the president or at least a dean--or both--must back the effort from the start.

The other thing is that you need to assess the faculty interest and expertise in your own community college. Just because we have the kind of program we have developed at the University of Oregon does not mean that I can tell the University of Washington, or any other university--and certainly not a community college--to develop a gerontology program using the Oregon model. What we can do as a faculty is going to differ somewhat from what some other university can do, or from what a community college can do. Each university and community college has its own mission. You can't be all things to all people, and you need to assess where the strengths and weaknesses of your institution lie, and go on from there. There is plenty of room for variation in gerontology instruction, and there is no reason why everyone has to do everything, even though gerontology is a multidisciplinary field.

One of the things universities can do for cummunity colleges is train their faculties, because universities usually conduct longterm, or career training, programs in gerontology. We are able to train your future faculty in terms of the students we are graduating now who have never been on the job market before and whom you will want to hire because they are trained in gerontology. And we can retrain your present faculty so that they can acquire some additional skills and techniques relevant to instruction in gerontology. We can also help you with things like curriculum development, suggestions for library acquisitions, bibliographies, course outlines, in order to show you not only what we teach, but to share ideas that may help you develop courses in your community college.

I would like to consider now some of the thinking on standards for gerontology education and training, in the context of cooperation among universities and community colleges directed toward integration and advancement of gerontology as an academic field of study. Educators are giving thought and attention to the following:

1. Standards for gerontology instruction programs.
2. Accreditation of instructional institutions.
3. Licensure or certification of individuals.

My reaction to some of this is that until we pass state laws requiring licensure or certification--which ordinarily impinge upon service providers--we cannot really structure standards for gerontology programs in our institutions of post-secondary education, because this is likely to be considered an infringement upon academic freedom. We can of course work together to try to influence what might happen in state legislatures if they get interested in passing laws that would require certification or licensure of gerontologists or, for example, nurse practitioners in gerontology. I think we're a long way from that right now, but it's certainly something that gerontological educators are thinking about throughout the country.

One of the things we need to work on together as universities and community colleges is the question of how are these standards going to articulate. In other words, if community colleges start 2 year college programs in gerontology on a wide scale, and universities start baccalaureate and graduate work in gerontology as a degree-granting program, then what is our stance going to be when a state authority says, "All right, in order to be accredited, your program has to have . . ."?

How will our programs be articulated so that your 2 year degree students can, if they want to, make a smooth transition and become my BA students? Wat are—and what should be--the faculty qualifications for the persons teaching the Applied Arts student? The BA student? The PhD student? What curriculum and training experiences should our students have at each level? I think we need to do a lot of work together on these kinds of questions.

One final thing that universities obviously can do to help community colleges is in-service training activities, either where universities train the community college faculty, or where our two faculties join together to provide in-service training for someone else, for example, business, industry, or state programs.

AGING IN OREGON - A LOOK AT CLACKAMAS COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Larry Forsythe*

Clackamas Community College is located in Clackamas County, a little south of Portland. It's a large, primarily rural, county, located near the metro area of Portland.

About 3½ years ago, I was with the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges in Washington. They had a grant from the Administration on Aging to basically survey all the nation's two-year colleges to determine who had programs for the older citizen.

On completion of that program, A.A. decided to select four or five implementation sites throughout the United States. The A.A.C.J.C., through that A.O.A. money, kicked in roughly a third of the funds. Clackamus wrote a grant with the state program on aging for approximately another third, and the college contributed a third. That's how our program started. It was funded in that way for one year. It had three main goals.

(1) Do a needs assessment.

(2) Study the possibility of developing some instructional programs for training people to work with older people.

(3) Examine how the college could be utilized for the older citizen, both in an instructional sense, and what I call a direct service sense.

*Clackamas Community College, Oregon City, Oregon 97045

At the end of that year, we had indeed developed some curricula and some short term training kind of things. The college also supported the program completely at this time.

Today we've got programs that vary a lot. Let me just list a few.

We have an RSVP on campus--the college provides the matching share, the in-kind and so on, which increases every year. We have a gold card program. If you're 62 years old and a resident of the county, you can attend any course, any class, any activity, tuition-free. You can use the lockers, the gym; you can attend concerts, theater offerings and use the library. The card pays for everything, with the exception of text books, or extra meterials, such as required in an art class. You have to be responsible for your own material. That's a key ingredient in our program.

We provide counseling for all people, whether they're students or not. We've encouraged older people, particularly as they approach retirement age to utilize that service. We have an information referral system, that, I suppose, would apply to all the residents of the county, but we push it for the older citizen. Somebody noticed there's this huge area on campus that's nothing but grass. It must be about 5 acres, and we ploughed it up with our own tractor and got a bunch of farmers to agree to dump their manure there. We got companies to donate seeds. The college drilled a well through one of its instructional programs, and we then divided that 5 acres up into 50 ft x 50 ft plots which we loaned to people. So what it amounts to is, we have a large garden for the elderly, and they can come up to the college. We have a bus to bring

people up to the garden area. That's a long way from instruction and maybe that's a good example of imagination and cooperation by a college that is truly concerned about all students. We'll go anywhere in our district to offer a class. Consequently we offer a lot of classes in retirement centers, nursing homes, any place we can find 12 warm bodies.

It has been difficult convincing some staff to schedule these kinds of classes and to find teachers for them. It's the old myth about the artsy, craftsy stuff--that if you're old, you want to learn to macrame and paint, which is true in some cases. Some old people like that. It surprised some people very much to find that a course called the American Novel literally had standing room only. The demand for psychology, philosophy and math courses really changed some of the thinking of our staff.

Some of the keys to getting a program going are, first of all, a strong administrative commitment is needed, preferrably a presidential commitment.

The key in our case was working closely with AAA, the Area Agency on Aging, all of the senior citizen groups, Golden Age clubs, Clackamas Senior Citizens Council and local art chapters.

An individual could literally spend their salaried week attending meetings. That's how we got people on campus and how we convinced them that the college was interested. When we started sending staff people to find out where <u>they</u> were; what their needs, wants, concerns were: we began to build up a relationship. One of the largest barrier that we face in

involving older people with the college is almost an architectural barrier --and it's pyschological. One of the ways we began to break that barrier was, rather than trying to get people to sign up for classes and get them up to college, say instead, "hey you, you guys in the Golden Age Club are always looking for a place to have a meeting, we have all these wonderful facilities including coffee and so on, why don't we have the meetings there once a month?" And I've seen many of these individuals then say, "hey, maybe I'll take a course out here, I've decided it's not so scarey."

Transportation was a particular problem for us, and I think primarily as a result of our concern about the older citizen, the TRIMET bus company now makes a run right to the college; which again the college was behind. We lobbied for it, but I think the impetus for that came from our concern for the transportation problems for the elderly.

We've also instituted a policy that there will be at least one individual over 65 years old, or retired, on each of our 45 advisory groups. In fact, we have more than that on most of them. It's beneficial to the college; we learn a lot. This older retired person comes to the meetings and has expertise and experience that has heretofore been untapped. They're useful committee members.

At the same time, it gives that elderly group the feeling that they are a part of the college, they do have some say and have a chance to see that we are interested in what their needs are.

Right now we're working on what we call a senior employment program, and we're looking for a little more money, and I think we can start it. It's modeled basically on the work study program. All colleges have work

study funds. We'll administer it through our work study office, and pay retired people about $3 an hour, 20 hours a week or less, and that office will function as a placement service.

Something we might have been a little guilty of in the beginning as an institution is assuming what older people want. I now have an advisory committee, composed entirely of people over 55 and I don't do anything without consulting them.

We have three programs that might apply particularly to the older population. We started out with our needs assessment. We have never found a job title "Gerontologist" in Clackamas county, particularly at line-level workers, entry level helpers.

It's a simply non-existent job title. So, in our thoughts of having a gerontology program, we really went the other way and we started what we call the Human Services Program, which has a central core for just about all the helping professions.

Our students can either go one year for the certificate, or two years for the associate degree. They might wind up working for the Juvenile Home, Clackamas Welfare Dept or the health division as outreach workers. A great many of them end up working where they have up to 100 percent contact with elderly people. Human Services/Aging is really an option within that general Human Services Core, and I would say the selection criteria is primarily interest in working with the elderly.

The second area we call Community Leadership and Administration. It's a two-year program with the same Human Service core. We discovered

that most of our students tend to be older students. They tend to be around forty and female. I think that's pretty typical in a lot of community colleges. Their kids are gone or they're newly divorced, separated or whatever, and for the most part they don't have what I call a successful educational experience behind them. Some of them haven't finished high school. There are a percentage within that group with prior college experience. They're interested in being more than that helper person. The Community Leadership Program is designed after the Human Services/Aging Program and kind of screens them out a little bit. It's designed for that person who wants to go on and maybe work with a small program as a director or assistant director in a small community program. The leadership curriculum has a lot of community organization, grant writing, budgeting, supervision, etc., and these people then are qualified and indeed they're very employable. We've employed everyone that we've graduated. They find themselves in that middle-management level. Not much more than an associate degree is required to be employed.

The third program in connection with nurses aides is called long-term care administration, which trains nursing home administrators. It's a two-year program. I happen to be on the board of examiners for nursing home administrators in the state of Oregon. We license nursing home administrators. I'm the consumer member. I was appalled to see these taxi-cab drivers literally getting licenses to run nursing homes if they had the money to buy one, and a wife that was an ex-nurse, made an investment. The board agreed that the minimal qualification beginning

this summer will be a two-year degree in long-term care administration, and I agreed to pilot that and spread it around the state. They also agreed that the administration of a nursing home should require minimally a 4 year degree and I think we're looking at this two-year degree as a step. It's not going to do the job. We've got some graduates already and it simply isn't doing the job. I think by 1980 we are going to be looking at a minimum qualification that will be a bachelor's degre. We have run all kinds of short term nursing aide programs at the college in the nursing department. They have been a failure because the industry won't support them. We put together a program that would require three weeks training. However, we found only one facility that was willing to hire them at $2.50 per hour. But what they do is work them for a week under the supervision of an aide who's been there longer than 2 days, and that's the training process. Our approach was: training costs you money, turn-over costs you money because of a 70 percent turn-over rate for nurse's aides. All that costs you money, let us train them. They should stay longer, but quite frankly, they are either disbelievers or ignorers; I'm not sure which, so that's why I believe that program doesn't work. Thank you.

COMMUNITY NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Some Reflections

Alice Kethley*

In assessing human needs for older individuals in our society, we are going to have to take into consideration that total person, and not just look at one angle of the picture.

We have to take into consideration the total individual and get down to the individual level. We are going to have to look at the psychological needs of an individual as they are expressed and developed throughout the life span.

If you talk to the people who are counselors of junior high students, you'll find that junior high students become very frustrated, depressed and very unhappy because they feel they are being controlled by parents, controlled by schools and by everything except themselves. It's the dilemma of being a non-adult in a society that is really geared more to adults than to children--despite the fact that we are youth oriented. But it is the result of not having control over what is going on in one's life, or a feeling of lack of being able to have a control over what's going on in their lives--it doesn't change with age. The thing that changes is that we go through some periods in our lives when we have pretty good control of things.

*Research Assistant Professor, Projects on Aging, University of Washington

The middle age group within our society has fairly good control of what goes on in their life. This is a time when we are most powerful--all thoughout our middle years, before we come to our retirement years. It is the time when we can make the most money, it is a time when we are in control of our families. It is a time when we are powerful in conjunction with our profession. It is a time when we have a great deal of control. When you get to the other end of the life span, and it's zap, and you're retired, then you begin to lost control over your economic well being. You begin to lose the control you once had as a professional.

You also have other events that are taking place in your life, such as the death of intimate others. It begins to happen to you more often, so that the mental health problems that occur in conjunction with psychological changes of aging really begin to become compounded by age. We have a domino effect that happens to a person, and that is part of the pyschological change and human need that takes place with age.

We know from psychological studies, that in learning, older persons learn as well as younger persons, as long as you give them ample time to process information, and to reply. But there is a slowing-down. It's a gradual thing; it doesn't just happen overnight. It happens to us all; we just don't recognize it, but it is compounded with age. So we have the kind of psychological change that takes place in conjunction with our response time. I just want to make the point that

we have to view the human needs in the sense of the psychology of that person.

We also have to view the human needs in terms of the sociology of that person. We all are aging within a social structure. We are all aging within society and we have to take those things into account if we are going to do human needs assessment. We are going to have to take into account what society has stated is the role of older adults. We are going to have to take into account what happens within the social role when they lose their job, which is very closely tied with their pyschological needs. We have to take into account what's happening within their family and family structure as a result of their aging process, which is part of their social being. There are all kinds of variables that are included in the social nature of a human being.

We have to take into account the physiological part of that human being. We cannot ignore the physical being. There is a certain slowing down process as well as other physical changes that take place. There are changes in our respiratory system, our breathing patterns. We develop extremely poor breathing patterns in the middle years--and in younger years too--and that really builds up when we're older. There are changes that take place in our circulatory system and changes that take place in every system that we have, and those things have to be taken into account in doing a human needs assessment.

We also have to take into account the economics of aging. That could be considered a segment of the sociological aspects. But it's separated out because the economics becomes a crucial part of human needs assessment.

If a person is in pretty good economic status, then their social interaction is usually fairly good. They can afford to get out and get around. They can also afford good medical care, and can take part in medical care. It also determines their nutrition a lot of the time. It also becomes a determining factor as far as transportation. All of those things which go together. If we are talking about needs assessment in terms of human needs, then what we have to look at is the total human being. We have to look at their physical needs, their social needs, psychological needs, economic needs, and start with our needs assessment from there. What we might do then is fix ourselves some kind of a chart in order to look at those needs and you may even need to divide those needs into basic needs, that is--things which one cannot do without. If you are forced to do that, then you may be looking at basic needs as being food; it might be in terms of housing, or it can be in terms of medical care. It could be in terms of nutrition.

Thus, it is important to examine the total individual with respect to aging when one is thinking of doing a needs assessment. Aging factors are complex, interrelated and intercorrelated. It makes little sense to isolate a single factor. I hope this has been of some help in this conference.

Thank you.

EDUCATION FOR AGING

A Community Experience

Robert Sarvis*

Edmonds Community College followed up a question asked in 1968 by a senior center director. The director had asked "Does the college owe as much allegiance to the elderly as it does to youth?"

Two years later a task force of older people and staff from both the center and the college had become aware of the following:

1. Most planning efforts for the elderly pay little heed to involvement, actual experiences or constraints.
2. Most college programs expect the elderly to behave and compete in manners similar to those of younger students.
3. Few programs exist that are specifically designed for elderly people.
4. Most colleges expect the older person to attend classes as traditionally scheduled, usually at night for credit, and at high cost.
5. Little financial assistance is available for part-time students.
6. Planning for the disadvantaged ignores the elderly as a distinct minority.
7. No significant research is available describing college decisions on this subject.

As a result, South County Senior Center initiated 5 courses in 1970 to serve older persons from north Seattle and southern Snohomish County. Approximately 16,000 of the 112,000 people residing in this area were elderly. Those attending the first classes had a median educational

*Associate Dean, Edmonds Community College, Lynnwood, Washington 98036

level of 10.7 years. 80 percent were receiving social security benefits and 64 percent had incomes below $4,000. This effort was later supported by a research study which showed that educational interests are less intense among older students, but just as diverse as those of younger students; that vocational education holds a different meaning for older people who still have some need for training and for short term or part-time employment. A number needed to develop self-employable skills in new areas. The research now shows that certain axioms should be reflected upon when preparing programs for senior citizens. Some of these follow:

1. Plan programs with the elderly rather than for them. Involve them in the planning.

2. Plan more programs with immediate meaning. If anyone lives for today, it is surely the older adult.

3. Activities preferred in the research should be planned to meet once or twice a week in the daytime in familiar locations (i.e., senior center) where older people feel more comfortable and less effort is required than in getting to campus.

4. Involve providers of services as well as consumers in the planning and in programming. Include all levels of government. (Cabinet members, foreign diplomats and presidential envoys have visited the South Center program, thus amplifying need for education.)

5. Consideration must be given to the abilities of retired students who are often younger than age 65.

6. Plan for a broad spectrum of course subjects initially. Sequential courses will develop later by demand.

7. A level of cost and evaluation must be maintained to assure that quality education is competency-based. Life experiences should be considered in admission qualification, and not be underestimated by a non-oriented instructor.

8. Quality of staffing should be consistent with college standards.

9. Peer counseling services, completion certificates, personal contact and non-traditional instruction must be provided as inducements to older people whose images of the education process often involve a highly structured classroom with rigid seating and lack of discussion opportunities.

The research results were incorporated into the program design. On-site senior center programs are now considered a high quality component of total college effort. Free tuition is not attractively viewed by older people as they see this as just another form of charity, and prefer to pay some fee. Therefore, the reduced tuition of $1 per credit hour is more compatible with their beliefs and further reinforces their feeling of having some student rights. Selection of courses is largely dependent upon the request of 10 or more senior citizens. They often recruit others to enlarge the enrollment to an average of 19 per class. It did not hold that because older people had lower educational levels, they should be more interested in basic education. In fact, they accorded basic education and the three R's the lowest priority and selected such alternates as Small Engine Repair, Reading and Listening, Home Economics, Photography, Rhythm, Drama, Furniture Refinishing, Sewing, Northwest Indians, Hotel/Motel Management and other programs that would prepare them to contribute services to others, either for salary or voluntarily.

Coping, expressive and language skills were met in courses dealing with:

Language (Norwegian, Spanish, French)
Art (Painting)
Living History
Creative Writing
Woodcarving
Ceramics
Senior Power
Estate Management
Typing and Business Machines
Lip Reading and Sign Language
Yoga
Picture Framing

Other gerontological opportunities are being pursued at Edmonds to train aides and technicians in nutrition, home health, social service, law, transportation, information. There is also a program to train recreation assistants and senior service directors.

The faculty are college qualified and are usually part-time instructors. However, a number of full time instructors are included in the process at the senior centers. Faculty orientation is recommended and includes a focus on older people with greater need for group participation, patience, informality and warmth.

After completion of the two credit type classes, an inscribed parchment completion certificate is given at a formal ceremony at the close of each quarter. The ceremony is by request of the students in classes. The traditional transcript and letter grade hold little immediate meaning for older people. Formal registration procedures have been condensed and simplified. College credit accumulates, nevertheless, and some now are approaching a two year degree level. Various incentives are provided to encourage attendance at on-campus activities. Library cards, student activity cards, sports event passes and, the feature attraction, an extension of the reduced tuition privilege is extended to those courses on-campus. Conversely, extra effort is made to include younger students in senior center courses.

The college places high value on the association of senior service organizations and personnel in cooperative efforts to translate into service better ways of maintaining older people's independence. A most

important adjunct is the policy and financial commitment of college administrators, board members and legislators. Older people who have supported education longer and greater than any other age group are certainly deserving of at least their share in return.

COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND SENIOR CITIZEN CENTERS

Bernard S. Sadowski*

Membership in senior centers, a voluntary association, ranges from one to five percent of the total people eligible to join. The rate of participation of the older cohort in higher education also falls within this range. Concomitantly, evidence from population studies indicates that the actual numbers of the older cohort in our society is increasing. Evidence from other studies also indicates that the overall educational level of all groups of people in our society is increasing and the consequences of such increase seems to be that more older persons will be attending institutions of higher education, especially community colleges. Little is known, however, about the psychosocial relationships that exist between members who belong to a voluntary association and who might attend a community college nor have strategies been developed to examine the interpersonal aspects of participation between both.

Background

Dramatic increases in the number of older persons in the United States have been documented regularly every decade since 1900 by the United States Bureau of Census. Operationally, for this study, "older person" referred to those 60 years of age and older. In 1900

*Research Associate, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington

there were approximately three million people in this age group and in 1970 there were over 20 million (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1972). Neugarten (1975) has projected that by the year 2000, there could be over 35 million older Americans.

In addition to increasing numbers, there has also been a steady rise in the proportion of older people in the United States since 1900 ; 4 percent of the population was over 60 years of age in 1900, and the ratio in 1970 was 9.9 percent (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1972). This same report projected that if the United states achieves zero population growth, the proportion of older people in the population will reach 16 percent in the year 2000.

The mean educational attainment for this cohort in our 1970 population resides at the eighth grade level. Operationally, a cohort is defined as a group of people who have approximately the same chronological age. Presently, only 25 percent of this cohort have completed four years of high school. The prediction of the United States Bureau of Census (1972) indicated that in less than 20 years about one half of this group will be high school graduates. The import of such data can be realized in terms of studies reporting a direct relationship between years of formal education, and the potential, desire, and actual participation in further study (Havighurst, 1976; Riley & Foner, 1968).

Historically, however, these older adults have not been conspicuous consumers of advanced educational services. They have been

significantly under represented in instructional settings in higher education and in community-based institutions (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Riley & Foner, 1968; Taner, 1972; Havighurst, 1976; Academy for Educational Development, 1974).

The actual numbers of older participants in continuing education in the United States have been examined by Johnstone and Rivera (1965) who found in a national sample of adults that 6 percent of the age category 60-69, and two percent of those 70 years or older, had participated in some form of continuing education. The United States Office of Education reported substantially the same information in a report issued in 1972, i.e., 2½ percent of the persons over 65 years and 6.3 percent of the age category 55-64 had participated in adult education classes.

Even though the older cohort represents only about 5 percent of the total enrollment in adult education, these numbers are projected to increase for reasons already mentioned. The United States Office of Education reported that for those 65 years and over, community organizations served the greatest proportion, 42 percent; colleges and universities ranked last, serving only 5 percent (AED, 1974). A possible reason for such neglect on the part of higher education might be elicited from a study conducted by the Academy for Educational Development (1974). They interviewed and visited a variety of colleges in all sections of the United States and discovered that, for the most

part, institutions of higher education were not aware of the need to develop educational programs for older adults. Their study revealed that no more than 25 percent of all colleges and universities in the United States offered special courses or services for older people.

Another reason for low enrollments and participation was reported by Peterson (1976) who reviewed the literature of continuing education and gerontology and concluded that little change has occurred since 1955 with regard to the educational aspects of the elderly. He also reported that the present activities continue to be reactive to discrete needs on an ad hoc basis. He suggested that a comprehensive, philosophical framework was needed to facilitate lifelong growth experiences.

Low enrollments of senior citizens were also found in membership in voluntary associations, specifically, senior citizen centers (Atchley, 1976). Even though reported memberships ranged from 1 to 5 percent of those eligible, there has been an increase in the number of senior citizen centers throughout the United States (National Council on Aging, 1975). Approximately 10,000 centers are currently distributed over all parts of America. Sociologically, senior centers are categorized as voluntary associations because they are generally nonprofit and nongovernmental private groups, which an individual joins by choice (Hausknecht, 1962; Babchuk & Gordon, 1962).

Babchuk and Gordon (1962) conducted an extensive study in Rochester, New York to determine the manner in which people became

affiliated with voluntary associations. They examined the role played by people who became members of groups and their ability to persuade acquaintances to join. With respect to the senior citizens segment of their study, they found that age was an important factor in interpreting their data. They suggested that as individuals grow older, they apparently become more interested in affiliating with an expressive type of association such as a senior center. Leisure time and personal and physical problems were posited as an explanation for this behavior. The hypothesis that people join voluntary associations through personal influence was supported by their data. Ninety-one percent reported that they came into the organization through the influence of another person. Secondly, they found that if a person was incorporated into a voluntary association through personal influence, he participated more regularly in the organization. At the same time, community colleges have become attractive to a varied clientele. Reasons stated for enrollment of the older cohort typically are those which identify the setting as congenial and social. The use of informal, noncredit, low cost courses which use nonthreatening techniques are often cited by older learners as considerations for attending community colleges (Korim, 1974; American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1973). However, total enrollment counts for the older cohort are quite low nationwide (AACJC, 1973). Locally, the State of Washington's Community College System reported that 1.8 percent of the

total headcount enrolled for academic credit during 1975-77 were persons 60 years of age and older. When compared to the total eligible senior citizens in the state, the effective enrollments by the older segment of the population is only 6/10 of 1 percent.

Both organizations, i.e., the community college and the senior citizen center, possess many attributes in common. Both provide for easy accessibility, have voluntary joining procedures, provide for expressive/instrumental functions and both have low percentages of older persons actually enrolled and thus both can be considered sociologically as quasi-voluntary associations. Thus the need existed to study the characteristics among members who might be members of these two groups.

Theory

Research in higher education regarding the elderly has generally taken two directions, namely, (1) functional needs/assessments, and (2) market analysis strategies. An example of needs/assessment can be found in McClusky's (1974) paradigm. His hierarchy of functional needs for the elderly were based upon expert knowledge and opinion rather than on actual expressed interests by the elderly. The functional needs approach has been based upon the assumption that "older adults are capable of profiting from genuine intellectual challenges that are designed to teach them how to live more rewarding lives" (Grany & Hays, 1976, p. 345).

A market analysis approach typically goes the next step, whereby the expressed needs and interests of the older person provide the guiding principles for designing the educational programs and strategies. This approach usually consists of the ordinary wants and needs survey and/or questionnaire.

The studies which have been most frequently conducted by community colleges have been wants and needs assessments. These have their general usefulness, but lack sufficient theoretical basis and generalizability to enable college planners to design appropriate gerontological courses and/or programs. Few interview schedule type of studies have been conducted with senior citizens to examine the possible interpersonal relationships which are a motivating factor in attending a community college. Secondly, few investigations have been conducted which used as a population the total membership of a large urban city's senior citizen centers.

Irrespective of the assessment approach used, educators must be informed of elderly students' needs, and they should be knowledgeable about the rank ordered importance among those needs. Since this study sought to examine psychosocial factors existent among members of a voluntary association and their potential for participation in community colleges, a direction was needed which utilized portions of both research approaches. A hypothetical construct from the psychosocial literature, namely affilialtion, was selected to provide a theory building approach.

Since affiliation referes to associating with others independent of special considerations, it provided the theory base for this study and one which would allow generalizations about why elderly join into groups.

Available evidence has indicated an increasingly larger percentage of older adults in our population. Concomitantly, some studies have been performed which indicated that older students can benefit/learn from further studies. However, there are few studies which have investigated those psychosocial factors which encourage or impel older adults to enroll in community college and classes, or the converse.

It is pertinent that community college planners of curricula for the older cohort be made aware of factors which may appeal to elders and thus potentiate a greater proportionate attendance. Knowledge of why members of a voluntary association join groups could be generalized by college planners and thus expedite course scheduling by forfeiting regular market analysis strategies.

Summary

Education for older members of our society, as well as education about aging for all age groups, is needed to foster change in research and planning methodologies in higher education. Given that members of voluntary associations such as a senior citizen center are potential candidates for further study in an institution of higher education such as a community college, and given evidence that learning can be a lifelong experience, it behooves educational planners to investigate the relationships existent among characteristics of senior citizens and their reasons to affiliate. Since evidence from several disciplines have shown that older persons can continue to learn, and, that although actual numbers who enroll in higher education are small, census data show increasing numbers of older persons in the population; therefore, it is plausible to expect an increase of older persons in college classes in the future. Planning the curriculum for the older learner could be enhanced if educators possessed information and knowledge regarding the characteristics among members of voluntary associations who may desire to join an institution of higher education such as a community college. The theoretical construct of affiliation was selected as the inference from social psychology to investigate the relationship between factors of joining behavior and potential for enrollment in community college programs and courses.

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THE NONTRADITIONAL STUDENT

Keynote Address

Ernest G. Kramer*

I am intrigued by the title of this conference--the nontraditional student in nontradtional occupations.

I have the feeling that one of our big hang-ups in education has to do with this matter of tradition. Perhaps we have for many years been serving the traditional student when in truth perhaps all students are nontraditional--at least in the beginning.

Our educational philosophy has said that the ultimate in educational planning should be individualized instruction--different strokes for different folks if you will. Educational performance, however, more nearly results in a structure designed to provide each individual with an identical education.

Of course, there are many interpretations to the term traditional. For example, there was the notice posted on one college campus that read, "It is a tradition here not to walk on the grass. This tradition is effective at noon today." In that sense, perhaps your conference title should include the thought of the nontraditional student being served by the nontraditional educational program.

Some time ago Robert Theobald said, "It is the task of education to make the impossible seem relevant.

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*Past Director, Council of Vocational Education, State of Washington

"The new world will not be our world. It will be created by young people who know how to live in a new environment. Within this framework, I challenge you to be willing to work for something you may dislike, to accept things you cannot understand, and to start a process, the conclusion of which is uncertain and probably undesirable to many of us."

Whether we agree completely or not with Theobald, his statement does highlight the fact that seems to be everywhere around us--we cannot expect to answer tomorrow's problems with yesterday's patterns.

One of our great dilemmas in education has been the conflict between the generalist and the specialist, and it seems that this conflict is still largely unresolved.

It's been pointed out by some that a specialist is one who knows more and more about less and less until the ultimate which is that he knows everything about nothing.

Contrarywise, a generalist is one who knows less and less about more and more until he knows nothing about everything.

If, however, we mean in education that the generalist is the practitioner principally concerned with the general knowledge and competencies everyone needs, then it seems obvious that we have great need of both of them.

And that ideally there should be a wedding between the two concepts. In this connection, I like the implication in one of your topics later

in your conference—"mainstreaming the handicapped student."

In this connection, it is interesting to briefly review the 60 year history of the federal grant-in-aid program in vocation education. The history began with the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917—an act which still has connotations lurking about in educational halls.

One thing to keep in mind at the outset is that the world of work in 1917 was a very different world in terms of skills and knowledge than our world today.

In 1917, the work of the world was largely manipulative, whereas we have now become a push-button culture, where manipulative skills take a back seat to having the knowledge to know which button to push when. In 1917, occupations fell into neat categories and the son's entrance into his father's occupation largely concerned the same set of entrance skills and knowledges with which his father had to contend.

Today, we are faced with the knowledge that the world of work into which we were born is very likely to be altogether different when we leave it.

The George-Barden Act of 1946 significantly increased federal funds and continued the basic thrust of Smith-Hughes. While the Vocational Act of 1963 represented major change, it removed restrictiveness inherent in the Smith-Hughes Act, and increased funds.

Subsequent acts have provided more flexibility, and at the same time replaced the Smith Hughes restrictiveness with new earmarks, some of which

have more to do with sociological problems than educational ones.

Ideally program need and program design should precede funding determinations. I know you must live in the real world, but I would hope that educational focus can soon return to first-things-first.

In this connection, I think your deliberations in the nontraditional area can very possibly have ramifications for the total program of education--not merely the specialized populations that are your immediate concern.

We do need greatly increased emphasis upon individual differences--upon many kinds of talent--upon the immensely varied ways in which individual potentialities may be realized. We have already learned that many times the solution to a problem rests with innovative thinking. It is in this connection that I think that in the process of looking for better ways to get the job done you could well be setting some good standards for the total program of education.

Remember, of course, that new ideas can be both good and bad, just like the old ones.

But as long as the thrust is focused on the individual being served, then you can't get too far off the track.

Thank you.

JOB RETRAINING

A Look at the U. S. Department of Labor

Wray Whitesell*

My background comes from eight years with the State of Washington's Department of Vocational Rehabilitation. Almost a year ago I accepted a position working for the U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Worker's Compensation. My particular assignment was to provide vocational rehabilitation services for federal employees.

My territory consists of 4 states, namely, Alaska, Oregon, Idaho and Washington. We work with permanently, partially disabled civilian employees of the federal government who are receiving compensation for a lack of earning capacity. We only work with people whose residual disability is not a permanent one. It must be permanent, but only partial. The person must be receiving compensation and must be a federal employee which narrows it down to about three million people in the U. S. who are eligible.

We have about 2,000 such people in the four state region. They're coming to seek assistance now at a rate of about 15 a week.

You might want to know who are federal employees. They are civilian people who work at military bases, people who are postal employees, that work for the forestry, and bureau of land management. There are federal employees at Trident and Puget Sound Naval Supply.

*Chief, Branch of Rehabilitation, Dist. 14, U. S. Dept. of Labor, Seattle, WA

Just a word about how I got involved in this. The law says that if a person is injured on the job, that position is to be left vacant and unfilled for a year in order to see whether the injured employee can recover well enough to take that job. What usually happens is that at the end of the year, they review the case and I get involved. The case comes across my desk to review for rehabilitation potential. If I think there is some potential there, I try to negotiate by corresponding with the officials at the bases and requesting that they consider the fellow for reassignment. They have reinstatement rights. They have transfer rights. I make personal visits and say, "look there must be something on this base that this fellow can do and reduce your compensation." My big pitch is that I'm here to help them save money and it really does save money. I talked to Puget Sound Navy Base last week, and I had six cases that they had referred to me in February. The ages were 25, 27, 47 and 56. I projected how much money it would cost if these people were not taken back to a job on the base. I projected that a million and a half dollars in compensation, just for those six people, would eventually be paid! That's not counting the cost of living increases, nor does it count all the medical expenses that would be paid. That's not counting the rehabilitation services that are to be provided. That's not counting the replacement. You're going to have to hire another man to take his place. So you're looking at 3 or 4 million dollars for six people.

I try to raise a few eyebrows where ever I go to remind them that this compensation comes out of their funds. It's all charged back to their agency and a lot of the administrators don't seem to realize this simply because it comes off the top at Washington D. C.

So my first emphasis is to try and get the person back on the job. I suggest we can carry that person on compensation for 3 to 6 months and the agency train the person. If he needs typing or something else, we can arrange for it at a community college or a vocational school--anywhere, and then we will hire the person afterward for a business. Now, sometimes that works and sometimes it doesn't. Most of the time it doesn't, simply because many administrators really don't see how it's costing them money.

So that's how we work. I might just give a couple of examples here. I have about 40 in training. There is a man from Portland, about 26 years old, and he was a forestry aide. He was in an industrial accident, apparently a tree fell on his back, severly injuring him. He is wheelchair bound today, but he has good arm function. He made a good recovery, but he is never going to get out of his wheelchair. So we referred him to state rehab in Portland, and they devised a plan that I think is really going to work. He's training for landscape and interior design. Thus we have a very innovative program that he is going to be able to keep a real interest in. He started in September and will probably be finished in about 3 years. He will probably have to go into private industry, but we'll make every attempt to get him back into federal employment first.

Here's another example of our on-the-job training. A man, 42 and married had an injury working for Bonneville power administration. We negotiated with the administrators there, and we found that this man had quite an interest in safety, so we worked out an on-the-job training program. It was a very loosely put together program saying that they will provide him the necessary training. He was hired last summer as a safety professional for the Bonneville Power administration, they hired him back at a GS-11 salary.

Non-traditional occupations is an area where we are getting some men back into non-traditional areas.

In closing let me say a word about compensation. If we place a person at a salary less than what he was receiving when injured, the compensation will pay him 75 percent of the difference between the two. So it's really an incentive for that person to get back to work, it's an incentive for the agency to take the person back.

I also get involved in court cases, serve as witness to formal hearings and I served as the technical advisor to the district office.

Thank you.

NON-TRADITIONAL CAREERS FOR WOMEN

Ann Oxrieder*

My topic is built around four questions:

1. What are Non-traditional Careers For Women?
2. Why are more women now considering non-traditional career fields?
3. How does career development research account for women choosing non-traditional careers?
4. What roles can and should community colleges play in the movement of women into non-traditional career fields?

1. What are non-traditional careers for women?

These are often defined as fields in which fewer than 25 percent of the participants are women.

According to a photo-essay presented in the January 1977 issue of View Northwest, non-traditional job titles held by women in the Northwest include carpenter, lawyer, painter, security guard, judge, TV master-control operator, metro transit driver, printer, sports therapist, sheet metal worker, optical lens grinder and dynamite blaster.

Within the community college system, vocational training programs which have been considered non-traditional for women include welding, machine shop practices, auto mechanics, diesel mechanics, marine engineering technology and commercial baking. For this discussion, I will limit non-traditional programs to trades programs.

December 1975 statistics from the state of Washington give evidence that trades fields are not extensive employers of women.

*Student Development Specialist, Seattle Central Community College 98122

At that time, female journeymen in King County numbered 55, and, in the entire state, totaled 63. Washington state also claimed 73 female apprentices, representing 1.2 percent of the apprenticeships in the state.

2. Why are women becoming increasingly interested in these non-traditional career fields?

One obvious answer is the wages they offer.

Census figures reported in the November 1976 Community and Junior College Journal show that the number of households headed by females increased 30 percent between 1970 and 1975. Data from March 1975 indicated that 13 percent of all American families were headed by single, separated, divorced or widowed women, and that nearly one-third of the families were living at the poverty level, while only 6 percent of the male-headed households lived at this low level.

A second reason some women are attracted to non-traditional career fields is related to the larger movement among American women to increase their options to marry or not marry, to have children or not, to work inside or outside the home, or both, to buy property, make other investments and to take responsibility for credit in their own names.

The philosophy of expanding one's options unavoidably extends to the labor market. According to the AFL-CIO publication, Women Workers: Profile of a growing force, over one-third of American women workers have been concentrated in seven occupational fields--bookkeeping, nursing, elementary teaching, secretarial positions, domestic labor, food serving and retail sales.

Many women wish to expand beyond this restrictive pattern and explore alternate fields where their economic and psychological needs might better be met.

The Department of Labor and Economic Opportunity Commission identified in 1973 other advantages to trades' occupations:

1. On-the-job training and classroom instruction are usually paid for.
2. Trades offer more independence and freedom than many traditional female ocoupations.
3. Individuals own their own tools.
4. Workers gain satisfaction from seeing a finished product.

Three factors favor women's entrance and success in various trades:

1. U.S. Department of Labor employment projections for trade's fields.
2. Recent research reports which show that women possess basic aptitudes needed for seccessful employment in these fields.
3. Federal requirements, such as Title IX, the Civil Rights Act and Affirmative Action Guidelines.

The U.S. Department of Labor predicts continued growth in employment in the occupational group, "Craft and Kindred Workers." The rising demand for craft workers is related to the growth of the two major industry groups that employ large numbers of craftworkers--manufacturing and construction. About one of every five workers in manufacturing is a craftworker. The Seattle-Everett area counts manufacturing as a large source of employment, after retail and wholesale trade. Thus, national trends in the employment of craftworkers should be experienced here.

These three factors--employment projections, evidence of women's aptitudes for many non-traditional career fields, and recent federal

legislation--taken with women's changing economic needs and attitudes provide some answers to the question, "Why are women becoming increasingly interested in non-traditional career fields?"

3. How does career development research account for women choosing non-traditional careers?

Although much recent research has aimed at bringing together enough data to formulate a career development theory for women, its focus has been primarily on the issue of why some women choose to work outside the home and others prefer to work as full-time homemakers. Only slight attention has been paid to determining what factors influence women's entry into tradtional and non-traditional occupational fields. Three variables appear to be major determinants of women's career choices:

1. Parental attitudes.
2. Attitudes of educational personnel.
3. Sex-role stereotyping.

One researcher who did study women in non-traditional fields was Sandra S. Tangri. She called these women "role-innovators," a term she operationally defined to mean women "who chose fields in which less than 28 percent of the occupants were women." She found that mothers of role-innovators were more likely to be working than mothers of women in traditional occupations. In addition, mothers of role-innovators were more lidely to be in role-innovating professions themselves. Tangri also found that married women were less innovative than engaged women, who were less innovative than single women. The longer the time before a woman's first child was born, the greater was the chance that she was involved in an innovative career.

In 1972, Michele Herman and William E. Sedlacek reported their study of high school and university science and education majors as representative of non-traditonal and traditional career fields. They found that education majors were more likely than science majors to feel influenced by family members in their career choice. They were also more oriented toward helping people than were science majors. Science majors relied on faculty members and other non-family members as models for their career choices.

What other roles do parents play in influencing their daughters' career choice? According to Kathryn M. Moore, one process which occurs frequently to college women who choose non-traditional career fields, which is perpetuated by both families and educational personnel, is called the "cooling out process."

This is defined as a conscious, but concealed, attempt to "rechannel student aspirations in line with their abilities, thus avoiding conflict created by disappointment and feelings of failure." In practice, this process can operate to rechannel student aspirations in line with parents' or educators' expectations.

Moore interviewed 62 community college women, 28 of whom were enrolled in traditional programs and 34 who were in non-traditional programs. Her purpose was to better understand the cooling out" process as it related to women. She found that parental "cooling out" activities were strongest for women who selected non-traditional career fields. Fathers' "cooling out" techniques were primarily the failure to take their daughters' career choices seriously and

unwillingness (not lack of ability) to finance their daughters' education. Mothers of these women, described as either neutral or passive, were less influential than fathers.

Going from family to educational institutions, Moore found additional forces at work which were aimed at encouraging women to reduce their educational aspirations. Most of the women in her sample reacted negatively when recalling experiences with high school counselors. By the time they reached two-year colleges, they either avoided counselors or looked to them solely for course scheduling and relied on faculty members for counseling. The general attitude among the women Moore interviewed was that counselors were only likely to offer obstacles to implementing their career and educational decisions and were best avoided.

A survey reported in the Department of Labor's Worklife Magazine substantiated the claim that guidance counselors were less influential than other school personnel in supporting and encouraging women's plans to enter non-traditional training fields. Women students enrolled in 81 postsecondary vocational schools in 26 states were questioned on their perceptions of the greatest influences on their career choices. Again, these students felt most encouraged by their male vocational instructors and perceived that they "received virtually no support from their schools or guidance counselors--or from other women."

Another powerful influence on women's career development and career choice is occupational sex-role stereotyping which labels certain occupations masculine and others feminine.

In 1975, Sylvia-Lee Tibbetts reported the results of a sex-role attitude test which she gave to 42 children, grades one to four.

She learned that, even at that early age, the children were placing women and men in rigid occupational categories. Men should be lawyers, astronauts, pilots, judges, farmers, clowns, and taxi drivers, veterinarians, firefighters, police officers, baseball players, train engineers, TV announcers and band leaders. Women can be nurses, secretaries, cooks, ballet dancers, baby sitters and house cleaners. Both men and women can be doctors, singers, ice skaters, writers, parents, bus drivers and pianists.

Two other researchers, Schlossberg and Goodman (1972), reported similar results from a study of kindergartners and sixth-grade children. These students "felt that a woman's place was clearly not fixing cars or television sets or designing buildings." They thought it legitimate for women to work as nurses, librarians or waitresses but did not restrict men's career options.

4. What roles can community colleges play in the movement of women into non-traditional career fields?

The first step every college must take is to examine its existing programs and practices. I mentioned earlier that one factor favoring women's entrance into trades' fields is Title IX. As of July 1976, all educational institutions receiving any federal funds were to address such issues as that of predominant enrollment by members of one sex over another in educational programs. By that date, schools were to take whatever actions were necessary to assure themselves that such enrollment patterns were not the result of sex-biased counseling or advising or

of any action on the part of the institution which indicated that it preferred members of one sex over the other in any of its programs or educational activities.

After examining their practices, most institutions probably felt justified in claiming that overt sex-discrimination did not occur--i.e., that counselors and instructors were not saying "no female will be allowed in trades' classes" and college policies were not asserting that "women need not apply."

On the other hand, most community colleges probably also found that many of their vocational training programs were male-dominated and some were female-dominated. In many cases, these patterns reflect student choices. Student choices tend to reflect their socialization, their previous work experiences and past exposure to different career fields.

Consequently, the second step in initiating institutional change is to take steps to help all students expand their perceptions of appropriate career fields and to help some of them overcome the previous socialization which began placing limits on their options at an early age.

When a woman expresses an interest in secretarial science, it may be because she has had experience in a secretarial position and finds it to be very rewarding work, or it may be because her mother or friend is a secretary and she's never really considered any other fields.

Counselors can help students by having them determine how firm their career choices are (often students specify a career field as their choice because they feel that by a certain age they have to say something) and whether such choices are truly compatible with their

interests, values, work needs and skills. For the undecided student, counselors can describe all the kinds of training programs available, assuring students that fields once considered appropriate for members of one sex only are being deemed appropriate for both sexes now.

Female counselors, especially, should be familiar with contents of non-traditional trades' training programs and employment opportunities in such fields.

Counselors will still find that, despite their most conscientious efforts, many women students who lack definite educational and career goals will still want to avoid non-traditional training fields. Besides the obvious reasons of not wanting to appear "unfeminine," fearing social isolation in the classroom and facing potentially negative reactions from family and friends, most women have very little practical information about non-traditional fields. Nor do they have any experience which would enable them to picture themselves working in such fields. To the question, "would my skills and interests be best met through a machine shop, sheet metal or welding program?" most women would be unable to respond. Describing daily activities of workers in these fields would probably not make the decision any easier.

Therefore, colleges need to provide women with first-hand knowledge of working conditions, typical job duties and physical demands of trades programs. Only when they have this information are they prepared to go through a career decision-making process.

Now, let's assume that following career counseling, exposure to different trades' environments and some "hands on" involvement with

various trades' fields, a number of women decide they would like to enroll in a trades' training program. What is the college's role at this point? Hopefully, the answer is "to help them successfully complete their program."

Two forms of support may be required to help women successfully complete non-traditional programs--academic and psychological. The need for academic support is stressed by women who are currently enrolled in trades' programs. These women frequently complain that, by virtue of not having certain typically male childhood experiences, working wtih tools and machinery, they always feel like they're at least a quarter behind the men in their classes. A brief, but intensive, pre-entry skills development program to familiarize women with vocabulary, tools and equipment used in the programs they have chosen could reduce feelings among these students that they are always behind, once they enroll in a trades' program.

Some women find that, in addition to skill-building assistance, they also require some psychological support--at least when they first begin a trades' program. Seattle Central Community College students have complained that some instructors invite hostility from male students by emphasizing changes that must occur when women enter a program. "You're going to have to start watching your language now, men." Physical advances from students and faculty, coupled with verbal innuendos, discouraged women from asking for help.

Results from the study I mentioned earlier, "factors influencing the participation of women in non-traditional occupations . . " suggest that, in classrooms which have four or more women, the women are able

to provide each other with adequate support. However, in settings in which there were only three women or fewer, the group is not large enough to generate the cohesiveness needed to withstand any negative pressures coming from other students in the classroom. Women in this situation require an external source of support--i.e., a group established by the college which allows them to share their frustrations and to develop new skills to cope with new situations.

Another positive step colleges can take to help students succeed in non-traditional programs is to hire qualified women, when possible, to instruct in these fields. Having female role models is critical as evidence for students that women have been successful in trades' fields.

A final focus of any program designed to change women's status in the labor market will be the development of a model for involvement of employers and union representatives in program planning. Existing college vocational advisory committees can serve as resources for college personnel who are concerned with expanding women's career options and who require current information on labor market trends.

I would like to end by focusing on the woman student who does not have the persistence or the strength required to succeed in a strictly non-traditional field, but who would like some of the rewards associated with such a program. Again, the data reported in "factors influencing women in non-traditional occupations..." indicates that more and more women are feeling comfortable about choosing "mixed" training programs--i.e., those which already have a mixture of men and women students. The study argues that these courses "offer the

potential for developing a different strategy to move women away from traditional occupations." "Mixed courses" include real estate, commercial photography, insurance, nuclear medicine technology, data processing, food service and upholstery.

There is significant enough relationship between traditional and mixed occupations that makes it easier for traditional women to move into mixed occupations. There is little movement from mixed to non-traditiional occupations, but even fewer women change from traditional to non-traditional.

A final suggestion for institutional change comes out of a recent joint project conducted by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges/American Association of Women in Community and Junior Colleges and supported by the Carnegie Corporation. This project sent ten interviewers to ten (10) community colleges in the United States to survey and interview students to "determine whether women are being 'tracked' into traditional 'female intensive' jobs. . . or whether they have the same opportunity as men to pursue technical and semi-professional skills for jobs in businesses, industry and public-service." Portland Community College was chosen from this accrediting region. I spent four days there in October, with the project director, interviewing students and distributing questionnaires. The data from the study has not been fully analyzed, but the preliminary findings suggest one method for making traditional women's fields a little less traditional. Traditional programs need to be restructured to include electives that will provide upward mobility and increased earnings. For example, secretarial programs

could offer courses in accounting and principles of management, personnel, etc.

Given the demands of women, recent federal legislation and a few sources of funds, we have the impetus for change in our educational programs. I hope this has given you some ideas you can modify and apply to your own setting.

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NONTRADITIONAL OCCUPATIONS

William J. Schill*

In summary of this workshop I would like to mix some thoughts about what has been discussed and what has not been discussed. This may be a devious way of getting my thoughts into the record, but I promise to keep the presentation of the mix brief.

As we continue to push for changes in the makeup of the labor force we have to expect some concomitant changes in the structure of our society, and perchance as we think of desireable changes and start pushing toward these labor force changes, we should start planning for the societal changes which must follow.

I think it's been agreed here that entrance to most occupations can no longer be denied the women, the old folk, the physically handicapped or the mentally retarded on the basis of needed mobility or strength. I say most of the occupations, because there remain some occupations which require both strength and agility.

Advanced technology has minimized differences among us in terms of agility and strength. A few examples come to mind that are very simple. You see them every day. We no longer have hod carriers. We pump concrete in a flexible tube up many, many stories. Nor do we carry blocks and bricks and the other heavy building materials. The domain of diesel mechanics has been discussed during this workshop as a new occupation

*Professor, College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle, WA

for women. We now have impact wrenches and torque settings, so no one has to exert 150 pressure on a wrench. Air will do it like a charm. The physical differences between groups of prospective workers have been minimized or set aside.

We should remember that the technology that has been developed and removed the physical differences between the sexes came about as business and industry saw that it was advantageous to spend money on technology to replace high-cost labor. So as other aspects of our society push for increased wages, the high cost of their services will encourage business and industry to make the investment necessary to replace workers with technologically advanced equipment.

In the hard industries the product production has increased and the number of workers has decreased. Coal mining is an example. Since 1940 the investment in capital goods for mining has increased. The production of coal per man day has increased greatly and as a consequence the number of coal miners has decreased.

A frozen dessert manufacturing company may serve as an example of a processing industry. This company had a little plant on the north side of Chicago where everything was done by hand. They powdered the biscuits and put butter on them and the like, all by hand. A total of 700 persons were employed.

They moved 40 miles into the suburbs, quadrupled their production and cut their work force by 80 percent. This was accomplished by the application of automated processes. The workers replaced were all in the

unskilled or semi-skilled categories.

The presentations at this workshop have overlooked the relationship between intelligence, technology, and the labor force. I would like to insert a few thoughts on that subject.

The entrance levels and the mobility factors in our society still seem to be affected by abstract intelligence, and technology tends to amplify this abstract intelligence, not minimize it.

The mentally handicapped may be admitted to the labor force, but we can be sure they will be at the very bottom, doing the most routine jobs, and they will get the lowest pay. There is no indication that that will be changed.

There are many good recent discussions of changes in the need for physical agility and strength and change in the need for abstract intelligence. One is by Jacque Ellul in his book The Technological Society.

Another was written by a friend of mine, Carl Beretier, in the fall 1968 issue of Harvard Education Review. He elaborated on the article in a small book Must We Educate?

The classical studies of the relationship between measured intelligence and occupational level were done by Stauffer on American soldiers during and after WWII. He found that in the traditional occupations, there were significant differences among occupations on measured I.Q.

One of the things I haven't heard discussed here in the last day and a half is the change in the characteristics of the labor force in the United States. Some of these are important to the deliberations of non-traditonal occupations. Since 1910, roughly 40 percent of everyone

alive in the United States has been working for salaries or wages. The proportion of the total population in the labor force has hovered around 40 percent. The unemployment ratio is the proportion of that force that is not working.

The labor force is defined to include everyone working for salaries and wages, plus everyone actively seeking employment.

Those excluded by their definition are obvious.

Some characteristics of the labor force worthy of discussion are:

1. Occupations with substantial numbers of minorities and/or women are low-paid occupations. It has been a fact; it continues to be a fact.

   One of the things labor unions consider when they respond to demands that minorities be permitted to enter the organizations that they have built up over the years is that they have gained control over the entrance and the placement of people in that occupation and the control is essential to continued bargaining power..

   Unions can look at other occupations that have a majority of women and see evidence that they lose bargaining power as the proportion of women and minorities increase. If the structure of the labor force is going to change, perchance then the relationship between minorities and rate of pay may have to change. Ethnic minorities

and women may have to demonstrate their willingness to support the bargaining stance taken by unions.

2. Changes in the components of the labor force and the conditions of work.

Over the past 60 years, since 1910, minorities and women have been admitted to the labor force. As new groups entered the labor force, others had to be excluded; we excluded youth. The average age entry to full time employment in the U.S. is now approximately 22. In 1910, it was below 14.

The unemployment rate between 16 and 23 is very high (among minority youth it is 3 or 4 times the national unemployment level).

We've excluded the old folk by mandatory retirement and early retirement. We've restricted the number of days and hours of work from 6 days of 10 hours in 1910 to 4½ days a week of 7½ hours in 1975.

Sick leave, maternity leave, paid vacation and paid holidays have restricted the amount of time spent on the job every year.

As I see it, the necessity of change was not so much to make life easier for the working class, but to insure that about 40 percent of the population

remained employed.

One of the other changes in the labor force that is discussed often in the popular press is the increase of the number of people engaged in service occupations. A reasoned discussion of that trend and some of the hazards involved is presented by Eli Ginsberg in December 1977 issue of the Scientific American. There has been a fantastic increase during the last 20 years in the employment in tax-supported jobs, and the employment in non-profit agencies. Right now, at least 36 percent of the total number of people employed are employed in tax-supported or non-profit agencies--roughly 1 out of 3.

If you use Boeing as an example that every job they have creates three, we could apply that to the people working at tax-supported and tax-free jobs. Their jobs, if they each created three other jobs, would create the rest of the labor force. In sum, I think it can be said that the private sector can no longer claim the creation of three jobs for each of their employees.

We have had a long standing unemployment in the U.S. of from 7½ to 10 percent. It's been much higher than the rest of the industrial countries will tolerate.

The government of France, England, Germany would topple if unemployment was at more than 4 percent for any period of time.

If we are going to maintain the level of employment our society has enjoyed for decades, we are going to have to make some other changes.

3. One of the things that I heard in the discussions over the last day and a half was an implicit assumption that anyone who goes to work is going to automatically receive all kinds of psychological strokes. The great job-satisfaction kick. There seems to be ample evidence that this is not true. There isn't all that much job satisfaction, and many jobs are dull. (And the studies of job satisfaction seem to indicate that Hank and I are the only happy ones around.)

University professors at urban universities typically top the list of employed persons who enjoy their jobs. Job satisfaction is most often related to the opportunity to schedule your own time and participate in the planning. There are not many jobs like that. The possibility of the retarded--the physically handicapped, the badly physically handicapped, getting jobs that will give them long-range psychological satisfaction is very, very meagre, and if we were to read most of the examples in Stud Terket's book

Working, we could probably say that there is little possibility of job satisfaction for the rest of us. The probability isn't all that good.

Money (and I heard the women talking about getting into higher paying jobs), is a short-term job satisfaction, not a long term, that marches its way down the list very rapidly.

We have a hierarchal society. It's based on social and economic conditions, as some people move up, others have to move down. That's the way it has been. We have studies about social mobility in the U.S. Studies seem to indicate that our social mobility falls way below Netherlands, France, England and India. Upward mobility through work may be an ideology in the U.S., but the evidence seems to say that very few can expect the satisfaction of upward mobility as the result of their occupations.

In summary, I would like to use the medical model for research, because they after all pride themselves on their scientific methodology.

If we use the medical model of epidemiology, we would look for correlates of the changes in our labor force.

(1) We find we have more and more jobs with no performance requirements, therefore no personal requirements should be necessary to be placed in that job. We have more and more jobs created with the intention of doing nothing. But we have credentials to replace the performance requirements. Education likes that, and the labor force likes that because education serves as the credentialing agency while keeping young adults out of the labor force for a few years.

(2) Some additional correlates of current changes in the labor force, keeping in mind that I am not equating correlates with cause and effects, would include; an increased divorce rate and a lower marriage rate, an increase in the number of couples living together without getting married. We have an increased number of one-parent families (more children living with one parent), an increase in the Aid to Dependent Children, a widening bimodal distribution of wealth, a greater and greater proportion of minorities and old folk at the poverty level at the same time that there is

an increase in the number of families with two working adults. These are correlates. They may be caused by changes in the structure of the labor force.

Whether or not they are cause and effect, we can expect that as we push for more and more changes in the labor force, we can expect that there will be societal effects from that change. We should plan for the societal effects as we push for labor force change.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Implications for Learning, Teaching and Testing

James Vasquez*

I want to center my presentation around two themes, essentially. First, what are the cultural and socio-economic differences among minority children which have strong implications for learning and therefore for teaching? Secondly, how do these particular distinctives suggest the need for reconstructing tests and the testing situation? I should first explain that when I refer to the term "minorities" in this presentation, I have in mind basically three groups; these are Chicanos, Blacks, and American Indians. I doubt that anybody would challenge me if I simply began by stating that minority students do less well than their Anglo peers throughout our educational system. This can be substantiated by looking at any of a number of areas; for example, achievement scores in school. You can almost predict where minorities live within a large urban setting by looking at scores or grades that children receive. Without doubt minorities get more than their share of poor grades at the K-12 level and also at the college level. The same situation prevails in the area of IQ test scores. For example, the mean score for Blacks across the country is 15 points, or one standard deviation, below the norm for the Anglo population. Chicanos also score at a lower level than Anglos on these tests. Or, one can look at the number of drop-outs and compare what is happening to minorities with mainstream youth. The approximate average number of years of schooling completed by Anglos in our society is 12.1. Blacks are two years behind them, and Chicanos are 4 years behind this norm, completing about eight years of schooling on the average. You can also look at the number of expulsions and disciplinary cases in our schools and come to a

*Director Centro deEstudios Chicanos

similar conclusion. As a matter of fact, the expulsion rate for minorities has been so high that a few years ago the Supreme Court determined that no student could be expelled from school without first having the opportunity to talk (in a face-to-face conversation) with the particular staff member who wanted the student expelled. This law was imposed to help reduce the clearly discriminatory practice of expelling minorities at a much higher rate than non-minority children. A similar conclusion is reached if we look at SAT scores which are required for entering college, and graduate record exam scores. Clearly, minorities do less well at all levels and in almost all areas within the school system as presently structured. The question, then, is, why is there such a disparity in terms of academic achievement between minorities and mainstream youth?

Two theories have been suggested, broadly speaking. First, there are those whom we shall call "deficit theorists." A number of well-known scholars have taken the position that, for one reason or another, minority students simply are inferior. They may be geneticists, that is, they may believe that minorities are born with fewer intellectual skills, and that, therefore, is the reason for their reduced, or minimized level of attainment in academic settings.

But one doesn't have to be a geneticist to be a deficit theorist. For example, language is often mentioned as the reason for poor performance in the school setting. Whether it is a Black dialect, or the code switching system of Chicanos, some individuals believe that until standard English, which many of them are prone to call "good English," is mastered, performance will remain at a minimal level. The theory suggests, then, that standard English is what allows an individual to develop to his or her fullest intellectually, and therefore ESL programs

are prescribed for the purpose of enhancing the cognitive development of minorities. Other deficit theorists look at the culture and will state that the particular values of that sub-culture in our society are inimical to advancement in education. Others will simply say that minorities are not motivated to high attainment in education, and that they have other interests which force the level of aspiration, educationally speaking, downward.

There is, however, another school of thought that also attempts to interpret the phenomenon of minorities achieving at lower levels academically than non-minorities. This is the "difference" theory. The notion here is that the child is alright, it is the school which is deficient. Whereas the deficit theorists suggest that the child be changed in order to do well in school, the difference theorists state that the child, if given an educational program which is orientated to the child's particular culture, will do quite well. Difference theorists talk about such things as motivational differences across cultures. They also mention preferred learning styles, sometimes called cognitive styles, in the psychological literature.

Another area is locus of control, which has to do with the way in which a child, or adult, attributes failure and success outcomes. It has been found, for example, that many minorities with lower socio-economic backgrounds are highly external and that they attribute both failure and success to external factors, such as: luck, fate, chance, powerful others, and task difficulty, while middle class children (regardless of ethnicity) tend to attribute outcomes to themselves, particularly to the traits of ability and effort. Finally, the difference theorists identify the testing situation as one that is highly dis-

criminatory against minorities.

For the remainder of this presentation, I will concentrate on the areas of motivation for minority students and the testing situation.

Motivation. The basic principle that I would like to mention with regard to motivation is that to motivate any individual, we must make use of points of reference that are meaningful and have incentive value for the individual. I remember, as a child, that one of our neighbors used to invite me and my brother over for lessons in Mexican dance. Neither of us was particularly interested in learning to dance at that time. However, our neighbor happened to have a piano which I prized very highly and which I enjoyed playing. I knew that if I went over to her house and took part in the dancing lesson, I could stay for a-while afterwards and play the piano. That, for me, then, was something of incentive value and I was motivated to learn to dance because of the reinforcement that followed it. My brother, however, couldn't have been less interested in playing the piano. It simply was not in his scale of values. Therefore, the reward for him was nothing at all. He, therefore, was not motivated to take part in the dancing lessons, due to the fact that the reward offered as a motivation stimulus had no value for him.

Now, it is clear that cultures differ from one another in terms of the things that they value. I want to discuss, particularly from the perspective of the Chicano, those things which have been found by research to be of high incentive value to children, and I will attempt to relate them to educational practices, and thus show how, with a thorough knowledge of things which have incentive value for Chicanos, teachers can indeed increase the motivation that is fostered in these children and thereby increase learning. A number of researchers have looked into the area of motivation and I will report here several findings which

have interested me. Teachers, in the context of in-service training, have found them to be of some value to them.

First, Chicanos have strong family loyalties. This is not to say that their Anglo peers do not also have such loyalties. The point is, Chicanos, from early childhood, even infancy I would say, have been taught to be a close-knit unit and to exhibit a high degree of loyalty and support for other members of the family. This is evident, for example, in the way in which males are taught to defend the honor of their sisters and their mother. As a matter of fact, we have in Spanish certain select phrases which are intended to detract from the honor of one's parents and Chicano children and adults have been known to fight when these phrases are used in a derogatory sense, so strong is their orientation toward defending the family as a unit, and the honor of the parent. This can be used educationally in various ways. For example, a teacher may say "Carlos, this is a fine paper, I commend you." The assumption is that the child will be reinforced, whereas, in reality, Chicano children are very often not reinforced by such words, since an Anglo female, in the authoritarian position of a teacher, is something which they are not quite ready to accept, at least during the first year or so of schooling. The same teacher, however, can say something like "Carlos, this is a fine paper; your father will be proud of you!" and my prediction is that that type of reinforcement will be more meaningful, and thus more motivational, since the teacher is appealing to something which has high incentive value for the child.

Secondly, minority children are very sensitive to human needs. This has been stated as long ago as 1956, when Hilgarde first made the observation, based on his research, that minority children are highly sensitive to the needs of individuals who surround them. My own opin-

ion is that this is due to the low socio-economic status of many minority children. These children grow up with far more needs surrounding them on a daily basis than middle-class, Anglo children.

The community resources from which these children come are to a greater extent directly oriented to meeting human needs. These needs are medical, they are financial, they are found in terms of housing, employment, etc. Therefore, we ought to make use of this fact in the educational setting. In other words, teachers should be able to relate all that they teach in the classroom to the meeting of human needs, whether it is in the immediate or more remote future.

Minority children are very concrete and practical. They do not want education to be etheral and abstract. They want to know how learning will assist them in meeting the needs of people. My suggestion, therefore, is that teachers be sure that they can relate what is taught in the classroom to the meeting of needs, and in this way, minority children will be more fully motivated to take part in the learning activities within the classroom.

Thirdly, we have found that minority children are very much influenced by models. By model I mean simply individuals who are of the same ethnicity as the minority children, and who are honorably involved in some profession. We have dramatic examples of this particular trait in the field of athletics. Before certain minorities broke the color barrier and entered professional sports, exhibiting a high degree of success, there were no minority young people throughout our land who aspired to be athletes; but once a few, such as Jackie Robinson, and later others in other sports, did make it, they became models and today there are many thousands of minorities who know they can make it in the world of professional sports because others with whom they identify

on an ethnic basis are making it. My suggestion is not that we need this type of model alone; that is, a high salaried entertainer, or athlete, in the classroom. Instead, any minority who is making it in some profession can be brought in for a short talk with minority children and thus serve as a model.

I have found it is difficult for Anglos to understand this point. The reason is that since early childhood, Anglos have had models in every profession imaginable, and they have never really asked themselves, "Can I really make it in such and such a profession? I don't see anybody like myself in those professions." I would ask you to take on faith, then, that it is important for minorities to see models, to talk with them, to get to know them, to inspire these youth with the hope that they, too, can enter those professions and be successful in them.

Fourthly, it appears from research that minorities are very highly influenced by peer approval and reinforcement. Now, all children, to a degree, go through a stage in which the peer group is the most important group for them, but this influence that peers have appears to be even stronger among minorities, and I have a hunch that the reason is that minorities accept approval and reinforcement from other minorities because of the fact that they identify with them in the many problems that minorities face. I feel also that this cuts across ethnic lines so that a Black child can identify with a Chicano child and may even look at him and ask such questions as,"I wonder if he missed breakfast like I did," or, "I wonder if his dad is looking for a job like mine is." Teachers ought to make use of this finding also in the classroom. This can be done by simply appealing to the peer group where reinforcement is needed. Such statements as "Hey, class, look at this book report that Roberto handed in! Let's hear it for Roberto!" And when

this is done, and the class gives its approval, the child is highly reinforced, due to his extreme sensitivity to peer approval.

Fifthly, there appears to be a clear-cut separation of sex roles among minority students, particularly Chicanos. In other words, children are raised in this particular culture to believe that certain activities are for boys only, and others for girls, and one does not easily cross over and engage in activities which are supposed to be for the other sex. I have talked with teachers who have come upon this problem and not known to what to attribute it. They have found, for example, that their female Mexican-Americans have a difficult time engaging in baseball when boys and girls are on the same team. Also, young male Chicanos have been found to be quite reluctant to enter into such activities as musical chairs in the early grades of school, because they have been taught that that is a female activity. My point here is simply that teachers must be aware of how sex-role activities are identified within the particular sub-cultures of minority groups and be sure that those differences are taken into account in describing activities within the classroom.

Lastly, in the area of motivation, I want to talk about the orientation to cooperation activities that minority children have. Research seems to have established quite clearly that children from poor backgrounds are much more likely to achieve in the context of cooperative activity than they are in the context of competitive activity.

In all likelihood, this trait has its origin in a poverty background which requires children to cooperate, to share, to do things with others, instead of in competition with others. This was necessary in order to survive. In my opinion, we don't find highly competitive elements within

minority communities. Some people would simply cease to live if that were the case. On the contrary, the minority child experiences a thousand times a year, so to speak, activities in which the efforts of the entire family, or perhaps the whole block or the whole community, are required, in order to achieve a certain end and thus these children come to school quite ready to achieve if cooperation is the mode of achievement. However, they fail, or tend to fail, when competition is required. They simply don't know the rules of competition to the same degree that middle-class Anglo children do. My suggestion here is that teachers make sure there is a balance within the classroom of cooperative and competitive activities. But as long as activities are primarily geared for the competitive child, middle class Anglo children will have the advantage to the detriment of minority children.

Now, very briefly, I want to talk about the testing situation. This area is more and more of an emphasis among minority scholars due to the fact that in several ways we have found that testing clearly and strongly discriminates against minority children. Regarding the area of test development, there is a strong bias in favor of middle-class children. Indeed, not until fairly recently have minorities been included in the norming samples by major test developers. I should point out, however, that even if minorities are included in the norming sample, and in proportionate numbers, the norms still are not accurately set for minorities. For example, if 20 out of 100 students in the norming sample are minority, norms for each item will either go up or down depending upon the influence of those 20% minority students. However, they will not come to the point where the norm truly should be for the minorities due to the preponderance of non-minorities in the norming sample. Therefore, we have a situation in which the test norms are set in such a way as to make the test invalid

both for the minorities and for the 80% of non-minorities on whom the test is normed.

Moving from the stage of test-development to test-administration we find even more problems. Let me share with you in closing some of the assumptions that all test makers must keep in mind when tests are administered to children.

The first basic statement that I should make is that any test given to students whose ethnic backgrounds vary, will be biased. It will be biased against some students unless their social class and cultural differences are taken into account. It is assumed, for example, that when students are given standardized tests, all students taking the test had equal opportunity to learn certain types of cognitive, linguistic and mathmatical skills. In other words, it is assumed that all students had equal exposure to the facts upon which the test is based. However, is this assumption really satisfied when minorities and non-minorities are together taking a test? Well, the answer is "no." It is never true that children from different cultures and different socio-economic backgrounds have had the same opportunity to acquire information: there are always differences in this area. Therefore, the test will be invalid as far as those students who are either culturally or socioeconomically different from mainstream youth are concerned. Secondly, it is assumed when standardized tests are given to children that all children were equally motivated to learn those skills, either in their daily life experiences or in the classroom setting. Once again, the only conclusion that we can come to is that not all students were indeed equally motivated to learn the skills required by the test. Another assumption is that all students taking the test are equally motivated during the test itself to exert them-

selves. Some call this level of aspiration during the testing situation.

Fourthly, we assume in giving standardized tests that all children are equally familiar with the demands of the testing situation and its purpose. Again, we must conclude that this assumption is not satisfied in most cases when minority and non-minority children take a test together. Many non-minority children, for example, believe that the test is an opportunity for them to show themselves to be superior to others, to exert themselves due to their competitive orientation, and in this manner they attack the test. Minorities, however, due to past experiences, are oftentimes inclined to believe that it's one more test that will be used against them, to move them into special classes, and thus their motivation to perform on the test itself is not the same as that of other children.

Fifthly, we assume that all children taking the test are equally free of emotional disturbances and anxieties in a testing situation. But consider for a moment the fact that far more minority children than non-minority come to the test from homes where there are problems that have to do with health, with eating on a regular basis, with employment of the father, etc. Thus, minority children more often come to school with problems pressing upon them that they brought from their homes and communities. This fact clearly will influence the way in which they perform in the testing situation.

In sum, the problem of testing, when we are considering minority students, is a serious one. Neither during the test development stage, nor during the actual administration of the test are the particular needs of minority students taken into account. Unfortunately, test developers will continue in the same traditional way of developing tests as long as their tests are sold. And let me remind you that the

testing business in this country is a big one. It is a multi-million dollar investment; and until teachers such as yourselves and school administrators say "no" to these test developers, and refuse to buy the tests, we will continue to have a situation which clearly discriminates against minority children and pegs them for life with employment opportunities that are substandard.

Of course, we have not even touched on the question of language in testing. There are some scholars who believe that standardized tests, as currently structured, by and large test only language skills and the ability to succeed in the middle-class Anglo society. What I have mentioned are more of the psychological and socio-cultural variables, which impinge upon the testing situation. The fact is, however, that testing is clearly discriminatory, and it is a moral crime to continue with the present practice of testing as long as certain segments of our society are systematically discriminated against.

Thank you for your attention.

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Dr. Frederic Giles . . . . . Dean

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Phyllis Rae . . . . . Secretary

M219 Miller Hall
University of Washington
Seattle, Washington 98195
phone: (206) 543-1891

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Participants at the Lake Wilderness Conference
on Aging in America - April 11-12, 1977

Loretta Albright
Home and Family Education
North Seattle Community College
Seattle, WA 98103

Helen Anthony
Jefferson House
Seattle, WA

Maxine Behrman
10306 NE 16th St. #2
Bellevue, WA 98004
Rep: Bellevue Community College

Joy Carey
Telos Program
Bellevue Community College

Mary Doyle
15628 Pt. Monroe Dr. NE
Bainbridge Island, WA 98110

Edwin Hill
Continuing Education
Wenachee Valley Community College
Wenatchee, WA 98801

Helen Ansley
Senior Coordinator
Bellevue Community College

Helen Behan
7745 - 39 NE
Seattle, WA 98115
Rep: Everett Community College

Helen Bereiter
Coordinator of Special Events
Chemeketa Community College
Salem, Oregon 97309

Jack Charlton
Continuing Education
Wenatchee, WA 98801

Douglas M. Henderson
1105 Newport Way
Seattle, WA 98122

Cynthia Imanaka
Seattle Central Community College
1718 Broadway
Seattle, WA 98122

Luther T. Jansen
Tacoma Community College
Tacoma, WA

James S. Ketchel
Columbia College
PO Box 16156
Seattle, WA 98116

Marge Koch
Human Development
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, WA 98122

Daniel LaFond
Social/Human Services Programs
Bellevue Community College
Bellevue, WA

Sharon LaVigne
Dir. Senior Companion Program
Lower Columbia Community College
Longview, WA 98632

W. .. Lytle
Coordinator, Community Services
Chemeketa Community College
Salem, OR 97309

Dick Peterson
Continuing Education
Wenachee Valley Community College
Wenachee, WA 98801

Wendy Morgan
Widowed Information Program
2409 - 55th SW
Seattle, WA 98116

Mary Neer
Program Coordinator
Highline Senior Center
Highline Community College
Seattle, WA 98102

Bob Neubauer
Eastern Washington State College
508 N. 8th Street
Cheney, WA 99004

Jennifer Neilson
Lower Columbia Community College
Longview, WA

Richard Ohmes
Olympic College
16th and Chester
Bremerton, WA 98310

Gloria Owens
Bellevue Community College
Bellevue, WA

Marge Ross
Columbia College
Seattle, WA

Liz Sandmeyer
St. Joseph Residence
Seattle, WA

Allen Suver
Associate Dean
Bellevue Community College
Bellevue, WA

Marian Tiffany
Home and Family Education
North Seattle Community College
Seattle, WA 98125

Carolyn Welch
Dir. RSVP
Lower Columbia College
Longview, WA 98632

Marty Wilson
Area Council on Aging
Bellevue, WA

Betty Younger
Graduate Student
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Frances Scott
Director Gerontology Center
University of Oregon
Eugene, OR

Larry Forsythe
Clackamas Community College
Oregon City, OR

Alice Kethley
Research Assistant Professor
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Chaz Kawabori
Director Region X
Office on Aging
Seattle, WA

Charles Reed
Director State of WA Office on Aging
Seattle, WA

Thelma Smith
Senior Intern, Congressional Dist. 1
Seattle, WA

Ken Cameron
Assistant Director, Seattle-King Cty.
Agency on Aging
Seattle, WA

Robert Sarvis
Associate Dean
Edmonds Community College
Lynnwood, WA

Ruth Ward
Task Force on Women and Aging
Seattle, WA

Wendy Morgan
Director, Widow's Information
Seattle, WA

Marlene Zendell
Displaced Homemaker Program
Seattle, WA

Harold G. Heiner
Assistant Director Student Services
State Board of Community College Educ.
Olympia, WA

Participants at the Lake Wilderness Conference

on the Nontraditional Student and Nontraditional Programs

March 7-8, 1977

Frank Anderson
Chemeketa Community College
Salem, Or

Helen Bereiter
Chemeketa Community College
Salem, OR

Donald M. Blodget
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, WA

Jean Donohue
Vocational Counselor
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Ronald R. Hogmann
Director, Community Services
Chemeketa Community College
Salem, OR

James Ketchel
Columbia College
Seattle, WA

Ann King
Graduate Student
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Norma J. Kruger
Counselor
Edmonds Community College
Lynnwood, WA

Pat Linde
Graduate Student
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Betty Richardson
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, WA

Nedra Slauson
Librarian
Seattle Central Community College

Clara Smith
Business and Commerce
North Seattle Community College
Seattle, WA

Jack Sullivan
Vancouver Community College
Vancouver Vocational Institute
Vancouver, B.C.

Susan Tinker
Counselor
Skagit Valley College
Mt. Vernon, WA

Greg Tsang
Counselor
North Seattle Community College
Seattle, WA

Don Williams
Higher Education
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Ernest G. Kramer
Past Director Vocational Educ.
Olympia, WA

Harvey Thiel
U.S. Office of Education Reg. X
Seattle, WA

Gay Heishman
Co-Director Mechanica
Seattle, WA

Randi Moe
Director Morningside Industries
Olympia WA

Pearl Rose
Fort Steilacoom Community College
Tacoma, WA

Harold Nichols
Youth Unlimited
Seattle, WA

Ray Young
Washington State University
Pullman, WA

Ann Oxreider
Student Development
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, WA

Victor Uhrich
Bon Marche
Seattle, WA

William J. Schill
College of Education
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Wray Whitesell
U.S. Dept. of Labor
Seattle, WA

Participants at the Lake Wilderness Conference

On Remedial, Bilingual, and Compensatory Education - Feb. 7-8, 1977

Dora Z. Alcorta
Everett Community College
Everett, WA

Gerald Alexander
Clackamas Community College
Oregon City, OR

Doreen Amoroso
Tacoma Community College
Tacoma, WA

Nancy Lee Barnes
Chemeketa Community College
Salem, OR

Gloria T. Contreas
Everett Community College
Everett, WA 98801

Marion Cope
Linn - Benton College
Albany, OR

Sandra A. Cross
Everett Community College
Everett, WA 98201

Robert Cunningham
Vancouver Community College
Vancouver, B. C.

Tim A. Dearborn
Sheldon-Jackson College
Sitka, Alaska

Norman Dooley
Vanvouver Community College
Vancouver, B.C.

Kathleen Gregoire
Edmonds Community College
Lynnwood, WA

Maryan Koehler
Lane Community College
Eugene, OR 97477

Oliver Lawrence
Everett Community College
Everett, WA

Sylvia Lovelace
South Seattle Community College
Seattle, WA

Elizabeth McNulty
Edmonds Community College
Lynnwood, WA

Lucille Milligan
Vancouver Community College
Vancouver, B.C. V6P2EU

Thea Moisio Saeger
Highline Community College
Midway,WA

Dean Morgan
Olympic Community College
Bremerton, WA

Vickie Plata
Everett Community College
Everett,WA

Don Reed
Chemeketa Community College
Salem, OR

Si Sanchez
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, WA

Carol Steele
South Seattle Community College
Seattle, WA

Dave Wettstein
Olympic Community College
Bremerton, WA

Donald T. Williams
Higher Education
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Aileen Yip
Vancouver Community College
Vanvouver, B.C. V6N3K2

Betty Younger
Graduate Student - University WA
Seattle, WA

Mildred Olee, Sanford Helt, and
Dale Myers
Seattle Central Community College
Seattle, WA 98122

Amo de Bernardis, President
Portland Community College
Portland, OR

James M. Vasquez, Director
Center for Chicano Studies
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Donald T. Mizokawa
Dept. of Educational Psychology
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Joe Maestas, Director
Financial Aid Office
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

Hyrum M. Smith
Assistant Regional Commissioner for Postsecondary Education
U. S. Office of Education, Region X
1321 - 2nd Ave.
Seattle, WA

David Leavitt
Senior Program Officer Adult Education
U. S. Office of Education, Region X
1321 - 2nd Ave.
Seattle, WA

Jim Lehmann
Bilingual Resource Center
University of Washington
Seattle, WA

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